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AN ACCOUNT OF THE WORK OF THE COOK COUNTY AND CHICAGO NORMAL SCHOOL FROM 1883 TO 1899.[1]

FRANCIS W. PARKER.

It may not be out of place for me, at this time, when I sever my connection with the school, to sketch briefly its inner evolution — how it rose from weakness and crudeness, by a zigzag route of experiments, failures, and successes, to the partial realization of a great ideal.

THE FACULTY.

The history of a school is the history of its faculty. The Cook County and Chicago Normal School is no exception to this rule. Dr. John Dewey says: "The school is society shaping itself." The function of the teacher, then, is to make life, society, the state, the nation, what they should be; and the function of a normal school is to train men and women for these duties, which are indeed higher and more important than all others. A normal school should have a much broader scope than the training of teachers; it should be a laboratory, an educational experiment station, whose influence penetrates, permeates, and improves all education and educational thinking. Hence the faculty of a normal school should consist of the very best teachers — best in education, best in culture, best in professional training, and best in experience.

It may be frankly admitted that our faculty did not reach this high standard of excellence. The best that can be said is that we fully recognized our immense responsibilities, and strove faithfully and earnestly to meet them. With us, a faculty meant a body of earnest, devoted students of education, who believed that human progress is co-ordinate with educational progress, and that human progress depends upon education as its fundamental and intrinsic factor.

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[1] This account of the Normal School was written by Colonel Parker in the summer of 1899, soon after he had left the Normal School to become president of the Chicago Institute. It was intended to form a part of the report of the city superintendent of schools. It may be taken as a brief but perhaps the best portrayal of his work in connection with the Normal School that has yet been written. This is the first time it appears in print, this memorial number being thought a fit place for its publication.

Not to understand the history of education and, through it, all that has in the past been done for schools ; not to know its reformers, its heroes, who bravely and wisely fought battles for the masses ; not to be cognizant of the very important and interesting educational movements of the present day, would have been proof positive of our inability to grapple with the problems of education. But gratefully recognizing the wealth of knowledge, experience, and method which the past has brought, and comparing the achievements of the past with present human necessities and possibilities, it seemed to us true that education as a science was in its swaddling clothes ; that genuine educative work in the schoolroom was comparatively meager ; that the cause of this inefficiency sprang from the low grade of demands made upon the pupils ; that the systematic cultivation of selfishness through bribery by means of rewards and per cents, and the improper stimulation by promotion, were immoral and often rendered nugatory the best efforts of the teacher ; that education, as it was, aimed, for the greater part, at the development of verbal memory, with too little regard for the evolution of thought-power ; that the training of the will was left in abeyance ; that the children had little opportunity to choose and execute for themselves ; that their reasoning power was not appealed to through the imposition of responsibility ; that education was too often mental and moral starvation ; that the needs of the body were neglected ; that the mind-content was sacrificed for vague word-images ; that the moral power was not strengthened as it should be, owing to the lack of proper opportunity for moral action ; that the common schools were not adequate to the demands of self-government ; that vast sums of money and much toil and drudgery were being expended for schools, with very scanty results ; in short, that education left much to be desired, and that by the proper means it could be infinitely improved.

This arraignment applied generally, though there were, it is true, many bright spots all over our land. Thousands of teachers were earnestly and honestly searching for that which would make education more rational and effective.

We went to work with enthusiasm and earnestness, determined to solve some of the immediate and pressing questions of school economy. Once a week, for two or three hours, we met to discuss questions that were forced upon us by our daily teaching and training. Every teacher was required to explain his teaching and give reasons for it. He was also required to criticise all the instruction and plans of order that came within his observation. He was asked to present suggestions, new plans, and devices which, in his opinion, would improve the school. When the printing establishment became available, each teacher made out a syllabus, which was printed and distributed for study and discussion at the faculty meetings.

The regular faculty meeting was by no means the only meeting. The heads of departments held many conferences, and the grade teachers had their meetings, to discuss questions of daily work.

Each teacher was expected to penetrate and permeate the whole faculty and the whole school with the intrinsic value of his subject and its relations to all other subjects, and to discover in what manner his specialty might enhance the value of the rest of the work. Our aim was to establish perfect unity of action, consistent with the greatest personal liberty, recognizing that personal liberty is the one means of making the individual of worth to the mass. There was much friction and earnest and prolonged struggles, which were reconciled in the outcome by oneness of purpose. Constant change, elimination, innovation, experiment, tentative conclusions—this was the manner of progress.

The teacher of teachers should be a great teacher in every sense of the word. He should be an earnest, devoted, open-minded student of education, with unbounded faith in possibilities; a person of marked wisdom, ready to abandon the useless and to adopt the useful; one not chained by prejudice or controlled by caprice; a person who "inherits the earth" through meekness and willingness to listen and understand, and who has, at the same time, the firmness and courage to withstand wrong public opinion and personal influence. The one thing, above all, by which the teacher of teachers exerts a powerful influence is the spirit in which he works. If he betrays a genuine hunger and thirst after righteousness, if he shows meekness and open-mindedness, and an overmastering love for children and all mankind, then his spirit passes over to the students and inspires them to do the best work of which they are capable.

Actual teaching is the culmination of the teacher's profession, but it is by no means the main or the most difficult part of the work. Finding and arranging subject-matter for the mental nutrition of every pupil, and for all grades of pupils, is the problem of problems. Old as most subjects are, the subject-matter of the fundamental thought-nourishing studies is quite new. Physiography, geology, biology, and other subjects of nature study present almost entirely new phases in the field of learning. Nearly all the eminent discoveries in the realm of science belong to the second half of this century; indeed, most of their inventors are still living, and some of them are comparatively young.

Knowledge in itself is one thing, and knowledge pedagogically arranged is quite another. The adaptation of both to the learning mind comes within the broad range of the teacher's art. An efficient normal-school teacher not only discovers and arranges the facts of his subject for his immediate students, but for the city, the county, the state, and the nation. He must be a close student of his subject and be familiar with all the latest discoveries in his field. He must, to a certain and reasonable extent, verify his facts, and then adapt them by a continued and continuous study of the children.

If a normal-school teacher is burdened with many recitations, if he is obliged to teach various subjects, his energy is overtaxed, his time for study and research is lessened, and his work is weakened in every direction; as a result of overpressure he loses freshness, vigor, and enthusiasm. These facts are presented in order to explain that as a faculty we were too often restricted in our efforts by overwork and by the struggle to expend energy in teaching for which, in the very nature of the case, we could not be adequately prepared. As the work of the school progressed, this difficulty was, in some degree, overcome. It is not easy to convince even an intelligent school board that the number of hours a teacher spends in the schoolroom is by no means the measure of his work.

This is a very brief and imperfect sketch of the duties and functions of our faculty as they presented themselves year after year of transformation "in the newness of light." Some of the faculty passed over, some left the school to assume other duties, while new ones came in to reinforce us. In June, 1899, there were two who were members of the faculty January 1, 1883. One of them had been a teacher in the Cook County Normal School six years when I took charge of the institution. I have never known a faculty so devoted, so earnest, and so self-sacrificing. I trust that some day its history may be written and published under the auspices of the alumni. In such a volume would be found the life-record of some of the heroes and heroines of education.

The foregoing, I trust, has prepared the way for a description of our work.

THE PRACTICE SCHOOL.

Without the practice school we could not have taken one practical, efficient step in the education and training of teachers. To the faculty the practice school furnished an indispensable means of close and careful study and investigation. Unapplied theories—and the world is full of them—are of little use; they float peacefully in the upper air, a sweet consolation to unpractical souls. "Faith without works is dead." We decided that every well worked-out theory which met with general approval must have its final test in the schoolroom. In discussion, each teacher's opinion had the corrective check and criticism of every other teacher. No plan or theory entered the practice school in slip-shod fashion. The whole faculty watched with critical eyes every new movement, and fresh discussions followed. In this way the faculty concentrated all their efforts upon the care, treatment, training, and teaching of children.

Most members of the professional training class had had, during twelve, sixteen, or more years, little or no practical use for the knowledge they had acquired. Knowledge to them had meant passing examinations, gaining per cents and promotions. The stimulus of definite purpose, a feeling of the intrinsic function of knowledge, rarely had been theirs. Moreover, a large majority of the students were soon convinced by experience that their stock of knowledge was exceedingly scant for use in teaching, and that their skill, also, was far below the demands of their pupils. In the practice room they were brought face to face with the problems of teaching. Learning now had for them a very practical use. A hunger for righteousness was created; and this became the special teacher's opportunity. The students, under the pressure of a genuine demand, began to study as never before.

It is needless to say that the more a student knows, and the stronger his power to study, the better he is prepared to learn the art of teaching. We met, however, in a prescribed one-year's course, not a theory, but a condition. The best way to meet that limitation was to set the students to work in the practice school, under the most favorable circumstances.

The practice school has one very important function. It is, if efficient, an influential object-lesson for the teachers of the city and the county, and for the parents and the public in general. It proves that there is a science of education and an art of teaching, and that that science and that art mean everlasting progress, mean economy of personal energy; it proves that knowledge and skill are means for the development of character. Under present circumstances, it is not possible for other schools to do the work of a properly managed practice school. The practice school is the real center and core of a normal school. It requires the most careful attention and study on the part of the entire faculty. I maintain that our practice school was a far better school for children than schools in general. The preeminent advantage of a good practice school is the individual attention and teaching made possible for all pupils.

On January 1, 1883, the practice school consisted of two rooms and one regular teacher. One room was managed and taught in turn by the special teachers. There was no appropriation for this department. Later, District No. 10 made the practice school one of the regular schools, and paid the county $1.25 per month for each pupil on the roll of average attendance. The income from this was not enough to support an efficient school.

We found that the position of practice (critic) teacher is in many ways more difficult to fill than that of special teacher, or even that of department head. The practice teacher must teach and criticise as the students practice month by month in her room; she must see that the practice teaching is a genuine reinforcement of her own work; that the largest amount of good is done. The subject-matter prepared by the department heads must be adapted by the special teachers month by month to the actual needs of her pupils. She prepares the monthly program for printing, and examines with great care the teaching plans presented by the training classes. It is no disparagement to say that many of our practice teachers were not equal to this exacting task. For a long time the limit of the salary of the practice teacher was $40 per month.

I have described the practice school for the purpose of explaining the work of the faculty and of the professional training class as well. The entire work of the school was concentrated in practice teaching. The study, experiments, investigations, the training in expression under all its modes, were direct preparations for teaching. The needs of the pupils in the practice school were the guides and incentives to all-around preparation. The critic teachers, as heads of grades, had immediate charge of the practice classes, and, at the same time, of the classes of pupil-teachers as they came monthly, class by class, under their charge.

The heads of departments and the special teachers studied the needs of the grades, and made out the courses of study in their respective subjects. They consulted with the critic teachers as to the kind and the arrangement of subject-matter, and the details of exercises in expression. They gave lessons in the practice school, in order to keep close to the central problem. Every lesson to the normal classes was preparation for the practice work. Each and every member of the faculty taught the psychology, pedagogics, and methodology of his subject or subjects. The function of the department of psychology, empirical and physiological, was to criticise, unite, and correlate all the work of the school.

The members of the professional training class were required, each month, to furnish teaching plans. These plans involved the subject-matter to be used in teaching, its arrangement and adaptation to the respective groups, with suggestions of methods and devices. Illustrations were presented in the plans by the different art modes of expression. The plans were thoroughly examined by the faculty, and either "approved" or "disapproved," the former meaning that the plan might be applied by the author; the latter, that it must be rewritten.

The practice school was divided into forty or more groups, or small classes, so that as many teachers could teach during one period. The afternoon session was usually devoted to practice. In three periods, one hundred and twenty members of the training class could give lessons. The entire faculty watched with care, each in an assigned station, the practice work, making notes for personal and general criticism.

The normal classes moved up or down each month, to give each class an opportunity to teach successively, for one month, in all the grades. The basis of judgment as to progress, promotion, and graduation of students was the character of their work, culminating in their ability to control and teach pupils in the practice school.

Pupils in the practice school were promoted from group to group and from grade to grade whenever, in the judgment of their teachers, they could do better work, and therefore more good, in the next group or grade. This plan required continued watchfulness, a deep insight into character, and a very careful exercise of the power to judge correctly and justly. By this plan, the student or pupil was made to feel that his future was in his own hands, that he must "work out his own salvation." Quality of work, mental, moral, and physical, was the criterion.

DISCIPLINE.

From the inception of the work, we were aware that there were very grave difficulties before us. Corporal punishing, fear of which was for ages the stimulus to study, had been generally abolished. The substitute for it has been and is mainly a system of per cents, credits, and promotions, based on the lust for rewards, the system of marks of quantities of knowledge supposed, and only supposed, to have been acquired. This pernicious scheme of bribery is in reality the systematic cultivation of selfishness, the controlling and root-vice of humanity. Its use, in effect, emphatically denies that pupils have any substantial enjoyment in the acquisition of knowledge and in the exercise of skill in expression. Bribery is the line of least resistance for the teacher in keeping the body under constant repression, and in stimulating the mind to startling vagaries—startling if they were understood. The stimulus of credits keeps the boy in his seat; per cents induce him to memorize words.

We abolished the whole system of rewards. This reform was a radical one in every respect. Children must have something to work for, else there is no work. A child fed on per cents often thinks of little else in school, and cares for nothing more, so far as education is concerned. It is true that per cents do not drag many pupils down, for an aim is as necessary for the child as for the adult: "Ideals determine all efforts of the will" is an axiom. The problem was to find an end, an aim, which would be a high, strong, ethical stimulus to child action, an aim definite in the pupil's mind, an aim that would control his will and inspire his best efforts.

Character, of course, is that end; but "character" is a vague word, unless translated into concrete terms of action. Such terms are found in the true meaning of citizenship; and the qualities and duties of citizenship are interpreted by the needs of community life. Very slowly our investigation led to the truth that must control the future education: "The ideal school is the ideal community." Working under the ideal of citizenship, we found that the feeling of responsibility, the dignity of belonging to a community, the desire to be personally recognized as of some use, and even of importance, were profound and controlling ethical stimuli for all grades of children, from the kindergarten to the higher schools—stimuli that increase in power as duties come, as insight is gained, as right motives are developed. Arbitrary government grew slowly into self-government, the order of assembled souls, the order of duty, of obligation, of free will. Work, study, exercise, play, came into each day as necessities of life, as daily bread.

The reform was accomplished very slowly; indeed, its present status may justly be called only a good beginning. But enough has been done to prove that the ideal is right, though the way of attainment is long and arduous. The history of the school, if written, would be an account of the disruption of the ideal that the acquisition of knowledge is an end in itself, and of the practical beginnings of the new ideal of education: citizenship, community life, or complete living.

Knowledge is to the mind what blood, breath, and food are to the body; without knowledge nothing can be done. But there is an immeasurable difference between knowledge as an end and knowledge as a means. Citizenship demands fulness and richness of knowledge, but it also determines the kind and the nature of the truth to be applied through self-expression or skill. The value of knowledge can be apprehended only through its immediate use, and its appreciation is the highest stimulus to action.

It is not easy to change the ideals of pupils whose minds have been soaked in per cents, before whose eyes glitters the bauble of reward, and whose school habits are rooted in competition. Very much more difficult is the task of proving to teachers that knowledge, as an end in itself, is a fetich, on a par with the mysteries and tricks of the medicine man. The ideal of community life, full and complete as it may be, is a vague thing to teachers whose lives consist in preparing for examinations. But the supreme task is to convince parents and the people that the old plan is utterly wrong. Parents in general measure the school progress of their children by per cents on monthly report cards, by text-books finished, examinations passed, promotions gained. Rooted and grounded in the minds of the multitude is the idea that knowledge is the one standard of the school, and that the quantity of learning may be accordingly measured in figures. A delegation of mothers waited on me in the spring of 1883 with an urgent plea for the retention of the monthly report card. *The figures of the teachers were to them the only indication of the value of the school.* Their ideal consisted of certain quantities of knowledge learned within a certain time, coupled with a "behavior" equal to economical efforts in word-memorizing. This ideal was the immediate cause of much bitter opposition to the work of the school, opposition which sprang from very honest opinions drawn from tradition. Opposition was expected, and it was met in the only effective way. The true test of the school is to be found in the development of character. If pupils grow strong and skilful in body; if they become helpful in habit, and thoughtful in their help; if they grow in trustworthiness, in refinement of taste, in moral and mental power, then the school is good. If otherwise, it is worse than useless. When parents found what the school really meant, their opposition changed to enthusiastic support.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

The nearest exposition of the new ideal which we held was the kindergarten. Froebel put into active practice, with little folks, the ideal of social life.

Before 1883, Cook County Normal School had had a kindergarten for a few months. The Chicago Froebel Association supported our second kindergarten by paying the salary of Mrs. Alice H. Putnam, the pioneer of Froebel's ideas in the Northwest. From 1883 a kindergarten has been continuously maintained as an essential factor in the school. It became a free kindergarten when the school was transferred to the city.

Froebel was the pioneer of the new education, the education of complete living. Far above his methods, gifts, mother-play, and the precious details of his epoch-making work, stands preeminent his ideal of life. He fully recognized the child as a social being. He believed that the action and reaction of child upon child, of the individual upon the mass, and of the mass upon the individual, were the keynotes to human growth. He saw clearly that opportunities for doing good were the prime necessities for the formation of right habits. In his comparatively short kindergarten activity, though opposed on all sides, he gave to the world one lesson, a lesson of incalculable value, the right treatment of little children.

However, his principles reach upward and onward into all education. To us the kindergarten has been the inspiration of all our efforts. Here we learned that the teacher is an organizer of community life and a creator of correct public opinion. Here very often we saw a little one, controlled utterly by selfish motives, changed, through the influence of public opinion, into a model citizen, ready to do his part for his associates. Every member of the faculty, especially the critic teachers, over and over again testified that pupils from the kindergarten might be traced through all the upper grades by their self-control, their desire to be helpful, by their ready skill, spontaneity of action, and power to study. The ideal of Froebel became the ideal of the school.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Handwork, which is now fully accepted in Chicago and elsewhere as an important means of education, had had, in 1883, a feeble beginning. Three or four technical schools in America had introduced it as a means of trade-learning; there were high schools that had established manual-training departments, and two private schools had begun sloyd as a means of education; but in the public elementary schools there was scarcely a trace. Thoughtful people who had studied the kindergarten were beginning to have a suspicion that the desire of children to construct and create springs from the deepest and strongest instinct.

Without "chart or compass" we established a manual-training department in connection with the practice school. Charles H. Ham and Colonel Augustus Jacobson, through whose efforts, and the financial assistance of the Commercial Club, the Chicago

Manual Training School had been established, were no less zealous in assisting the Cook County Normal School to initiate a course in handwork. In September, 1883, a few rough carpenter's benches were put into a basement room, and tools bought. Dr. George W. Fitz, now professor in Harvard University, took charge of the department. It soon became an organic part of the school work, and as such has continued ever since. It has grown with the school, ever becoming more important, though always crippled for want of money and room.

My first experience of genuine spontaneous attention was the sight of the first class at work with saw and plane. Boys and girls have worked together from first to last, and it would be difficult to say which have done the best work. Our experience in manual training has always been delightful and instructive. The pupils, too, with scarcely an exception, have greatly enjoyed their handwork. When we put the little children from the first grade into the sloyd, they seemed to find a new richness and beauty in their lives; and it was by no means a fleeting pleasure, aroused by a novelty, for during their eight years of handwork their pleasure constantly increased. In sixteen years, with continued use of tools, there never has been an accident worthy of the name.

At first we were at our wits' end to find something for the children to do, things for them to make; but this state of affairs did not continue long. Nature study and history soon suggested innumerable articles for use. The demand for apparatus for the study of physics, chemistry, biology, geography, horticulture, and arithmetic gradually filled the sloyd shop, and then the laboratories and class-rooms, with articles immediately useful in study and experiment. Manual training became interwoven with all subjects of study. It was the custom of the children to make useful articles for Christmas presents, usually for their parents. It was a delight to observe the intense interest of the workers; how cleanly, neat, and exact they were; how persistently, in and out of school hours, they stuck to their self-imposed tasks ; and how, when the walls of Assembly Hall were lined with the beautiful products of their brains and hands, they proudly presented their gifts to their parents and friends.

Every graduate of the grammar school was able to do good cabinet work. This, however, was a slight indication of what handwork had done for them: muscles developed and co-ordinated; nerves stronger and steadier; minds disciplined and hearts made happy through the feeling of usefulness. It is notable that the foremost workers in sloyd were foremost in all other school work. We found that the shop was an excellent sanitarium for weak nerves and other defects.

NATURE STUDY.

It was our good fortune to take the initial steps in subjects that have since become of general application. The great book of nature, God's infinite volume of everlasting, inexhaustible truth, had had scarcely a place in the courses of study in American schools. True, science had entered some schoolrooms through the usual text-book methods of learning facts, or supposed facts. Here and there was a touch of laboratory work, which was, however, treated as something far from the organic work of the school room. Scientists were pouring out stores of new-found knowledge; but the introduction of science brought additional burdens, instead of blessings, to teachers who were preparing their pupils for examinations to test their knowledge.

Nature must come in as mind nutrition, the means of soul action. The general theory seemed plain enough. Food, clothing, shelter, comforts, luxuries, means of transportation, the means of sense and æsthetic enjoyment, come from nature. The great, throbbing world of man is full of nature's products. The universe is God's manifestation of himself to his children. Creation is going on everywhere, in earth, air, and water. Which is better, a job-made text-book, or God's writing on and in all that is?

The question was: "How may nature be adapted to growing minds, to hearts that have loved and lived in nature until, indeed, they entered school?" We must confess to experiments, failures, and almost despair, in attempting to adapt to human needs that which seemed so grand and beautiful. Everywhere in the initial experiments was the blindness of the knowledge motive. "Things must be learned thoroughly;" and a natural object was taken, examined, dissected, painted, drawn—exhausted, and the interest of the children exhausted at the same time. Another way must be found. Professor H. H. Straight, a pupil of the great scientist and educator, Agassiz, entered upon the work, in 1883, with boundless enthusiasm, which all too soon burned out his valuable life. He was a man of large vision, a prophet in very truth. It was found that mere laboratory work was not close enough to the children; nature refuses to be viewed in bits and rags. A leaf or a twig would not do; the child must have the whole tree, with the land around, or, still better, the forest. Field excursions, with their wealth of observation, were early introduced. Woods, swamps, and the lakeshore were investigated with pencil or brush in hand.

Failures in nature study, failures that were, however, prophecies, were the rule, until Wilbur S. Jackman, in 1889, undertook to grapple with the problem. The idea of thorough, exhaustive work was abandoned. The phenomena of the "rolling year" were taken as the general guides; the child was brought into loving contact with nature; the subjects were adapted to different stages of child growth; art and nature were correlated.

We have taken a step, and only a step, in the inexhaustible book.

GEOGRAPHY.

Geography has been and is for the most part the memorizing of a conglomeration of unrelated statements. Out of mists and semi-chaos, Ritter and Guyot have brought the knowledge of the earth. Geographers and geologists now living have taken an immense step in advance. It is now possible to arrange the subject in pedagogical order for adaptation, by teachers, to grades and to individual conditions. This task seems stupendous, when we take into consideration the vast extent of knowledge from which the intrinsic may be selected. Physiography deals with the forms of the earth's surface, the structure of man's home; geology, with the history of that surface; meteorology, with the climatical environment of man; political geography enters directly into the study of man in his present conditions of social life, commerce, arts, progress, education.

There are in reality but two all-embracing subjects of study, nature and man. Geography unites these two subjects. One subject explains the other: without nature man is nothing; without man nature is useless. Physiography, the intrinsic portion of geography, is new to the world, and very new to common education.

Images of the earth's surface are indispensable to a knowledge of all the closely correlated subjects, indeed, to all subjects of study. This necessary link was early an exceedingly interesting subject of investigation. We were driven to the field for answers to our questions. No text-book could take the place of the actual objects. We found marks of creation everywhere —glaciers had done their wonderful work, rivers were slowly sculpturing the earth's surface. Scientists in universities had found treasures in field work. Why should children wait for the last steps in their education before coming into contact with the richness and beauty of God's open book?

There is no better sign of the weakness of education than unjust and unwise discrimination between a text crammed with condensed statements, and the original sources of truth that everywhere surround us in infinite abundance. There is only one explanation of the comparatively fruitless course, and that is: Knowledge as an end demands facts or statements condensed and arranged in logical order, which, in their adaptation to the needs of growth, are in the highest degree illogical and unpedagogical.

This explanation is made to show how gigantic problems arose at every step and on every side. To follow the quantity plan of learning would have been very simple and easy; the way was well known and well worn. The majority of the people were satisfied with the signs of knowledge acquired; the high schools measured results by the number of facts acquired. But the fact remained that there is an immeasurable distance between knowledge as such and character. The right knowledge at the right stage of development is nutrition; when carried into action it is self-expression, the manifestation of character. It is the question of daily bread for daily needs, infinite in possibilities.

There is the food—inexhaustible; here the child, his soul crying out for nourishment. Where is the teacher?

MAN.

There are, as I have already said, but two subjects of instruction—nature and man. These two subjects are a perfect unit in origin and purpose. History is an imperfect record of man's life, filled with facts, prejudice, fancy, and falsehood. Man, as a subject, is larger than history, comprehending, as he does, anthropology, ethnology, archæology, philology, and a long series of sciences united in philosophy.

History, properly taught, may assist in the study of man; but man is the central subject of a child's observation from the first breath to the last. He is full of experiences of life when he enters the schoolroom. He commands the teacher to go into higher experiences and deeper inferences. This means a never-ending study of man and his works in our great city. Manufactures without end, covering an immense range of human industries; business, commerce, social life, crowd thick and fast upon us. Here, again, arises the question: "Shall the child get his knowledge of man from meager statements in condensed pages, or shall he come into genuine physical contact with the great arteries of trade, with the life all around of building and making—the paving of streets, the building of bridges, and all the vast and varied activities of a great city?"

Our experiments prove beyond question that all children have a deep and abiding interest in these things. Two hours in a great rolling-mill means a genuine and profitable study of history. Such a study prepares children for the story of the great industrial developments. They are ready to appreciate great inventions and to reverence the inventors. They observe men at work; they feel the value of work, and honor labor. The citizen should know something of the world in which he lives, and this knowledge comes best from actual contact. Again, there is the thrilling history that the newspaper brings us. The geography of Cuba, of the Philippines, or the Transvaal, makes contemporary history interesting and profitable. Education should prepare one to study, to understand, and to appreciate the life on our globe that now is. Manila leads back to the great Armada ; the present state of man is the outcome of the past. The railroad bridge near the schoolhouse is a very complicated structure, the evolution of centuries of bridge-building. Observation of that bridge leads to the question of how primitive man made bridges. Without discussing the vexed question of racial culture, experience shows that the delight children take in the life of primitive man, in early homes, in houses, weapons, utensils, art, is universal. Thus evolution means to them the evolution of the tools, homes, the furnishings of man.

Myth is the beginning of history, and every child goes through a stage of myth life. Spiritual life in history has its roots in myth, and the same is true of the child. Literature is the beacon light of history. Miss Rice, head of the department of history and literature, made out course after course, and program after program, all of them tentative but profitable.

That man's life may enter and influence the child's life as daily bread is a possibility which opens great vistas of educational progress, fraught with deep significance to humanity.

CONCENTRATION AND CORRELATION.

A body of teachers working together honestly and earnestly for the good of children will be sure to find something better at every step. The best in educational principles that we as a faculty have found may be summed up under concentration and correlation.

Pedagogical concentration is the bringing to bear of the will, the reason, and of all that makes up personal thought and energy, upon character-building, or citizenship, as the end and aim of education. Concentration is reinforced a thousand fold when an entire faculty unites for one purpose.

Citizenship, or its correlative, community life, demands that knowledge and that skill which make the social life of each as full and as rich as possible; it demands that work and play which the little community needs day by day. Nothing can be done without knowledge, and the problem is: "What knowledge does the class or the school need for the best life?"

Selection, on this basis, from the vast stores of knowledge, is of paramount importance. The selection of subjects of study is not hedged in by the formal classifications of knowledge; indeed, correlation means the breaking down of the barriers of classification. To illustrate: When a tree is a subject of study, it should be observed in its entire environment of earth, air, and water. Thus geography, meteorology, and mineralogy converge in the study of one object. Perhaps the best way to illustrate correlation is by contrast. Knowledge, as an end, seems to make the isolation of subjects a necessity for the acquisition of certain quantities of knowledge in a given time. Therefore, in departmental teaching, subjects as closely related as geography and history, or botany and mineralogy, very often have no relation whatever in the minds of students. The tendency in knowledge-getting has been classification into subdivisions, the splitting up of topics or subjects. It is a simple psychological fact—indeed, it is common-sense—that the strength of a thought lies in its relations. The unfortunate struggle to pass examinations has suggested the device of compacting and isolating subjects.

One of the first mental processes that attracted the attention of the faculty was that of reading. The line of discussion was somewhat as follows: "Reading is thinking, imaging. It should, therefore, always have a content of educative thought. The observation and study of man and nature furnish the mind with growing images. Reading expands the images and brings them together in a unity. Is it possible to make reading educative at every step? or, in other words, can reading be made from first to last a potent means of synthesis and reflection?" Then arose the crucial question: "Is it possible to teach children the art of reading and at the same time hold them to educative thinking?" We were teaching nature, geography, history, literature—subjects full of interest—to which reading could be correlated. The theory stood the test, and one step in correlation was taken. The time given to learning to read became time given to study.

Spelling, the incubus and bugbear of school, came in for consideration. Is it possible to learn to spell and at the same time express educative thought by writing? Articulation, enunciation, pronunciation, and idioms are acquired by the expression of thought. Why not the correct form of written words by an analogous process? From first to last the nutritive subjects of man and nature demand an immense amount of expression by means of the pen. Writing has the tendency to unite images, to quicken thought power, and to strengthen memory. All writing should be correct in verbal forms. Is it not possible to learn to spell while expressing thought in writing? If this question can be answered in the affirmative, how much valuable time may be saved!

Long practice has shown that these questions may be answered in the affirmative. There are now and then failures in teaching children to spell on the plan of correlation; but such failures may be charged, in general, to defective teaching, or to neglect to do the right thing at the right time.

The doctrine of Delsarte carried us another long step in correlation. Mrs. Parker taught that kind of elocution which trains the body to be immediately responsive to the soul. Oral reading is the direct motor discharge of thought and action, enhanced by the action of the whole body. Thus speech, including oral reading, and thought may be correlated. This seems simple, yet we all are painfully aware that elocution has been to many the training of the voice, wholly isolated from the images in consciousness.

If childlike spontaneity may be continued and maintained in speech, why not in writing, modeling, painting, and drawing? Art, so called, had entered the American schools under the plea of industrial necessity. It came with the stiffest formalism behind it, was isolated from all earthly things, and its use neither the teacher nor the pupil could understand. It consisted in copying copies, or in drawing meaningless models. It is absurd to call this art. It never made an artist or cultivated a love of art.

Expression has three functions, physical, mental, and moral.

It trains the body in skill, reacts on and strengthens consciousness, and, above all, makes expression an immediate means of genuine thought manifestation. The higher the purpose, the greater the stimulus to the exercise of the body and to the enhancement of mental images. This is true only when soul, mind, and body act as a unity, the end controlling action; motive, image, and self-expression following each the other in immediate succession.

The above statement was the outcome of many long discussions, which were followed by experiments and trials. When we were teaching nature study, geography, and history, speech and writing were commonly used modes of expression. To these were added making, modeling, painting, and drawing. Each mode of expression had its special reactive function. The question that came up again and again was: "Is it possible for pupils to acquire adequate technique in art through the exercise of skill under the immediate impulses of educative thought?" The answer came slowly all along the line: "Thought and expression need not be divorced. Expression will grow with thought, and thought with expression. Under good teaching, it may be made better and better at every step." The correlation of thought with all the modes of expression is a great pedagogical truth. We scarcely "touched the hem of the garment," but the healing came.

Every teacher, holding an ideal inexhaustible in suggestion of better things, became a discoverer. The best that went into the school almost invariably came from a teacher who had studied the needs of pupils and sought to supply them. In 1884, Professor H. H. Straight introduced an idea that led to much thought and practice. He was of the opinion that arithmetic should be used in all study, and, in the use, be mastered. The reasons for this may be stated as follows:

1. The one function of arithmetic is measuring quantities.

2. In real life—in home, industry, commerce—nothing can be done well without the use of number or measuring. Number is an indispensable factor in all work; in fact, without number progress would be impossible. In school no subject can be

readily understood without the continuous use of number. Physics, chemistry, geography, and even history are full of questions in number. In every lesson there are problems that involve the exact limitations of quantity. All constructive activities must include number, for accuracy, exactness, proportion, and symmetry demand measuring.

The problem may be stated in this way: Which is better, (1) to learn number as a subject by itself in order to prepare for its practical application, or (2) to learn number by and in its application?

The handling of objects in teaching is now considered necessary. So blocks, sticks, and all kinds of counters are used in the best schools. The use, however, of these counters and quantities is of no worth to the pupils beyond the mere measuring. The pupils do not, through the use of magnitudes, see or feel any intrinsic merit in the exercise. But the moment they measure for some higher aim, their interest is immensely increased, and the facts of number become a part of themselves. It needs little explanation to prove that, when a human being outside of school is working toward some definite end, he uses all the means within his reach. Why not give our children the same opportunity?

We took a good step toward correlating arithmetic with all other subjects, but only a step; very much remains yet to be done to prove or disprove the theory. Habits of teaching under the "knowledge aim" have powerful binding force. "So much in so much time" means, "I must exclude all except the definite facts to be learned." The character aim demands that everything shall be brought in which will concentrate and expand ideas and develop right habits. Personally I am entirely convinced of the truth of the theory.

The more we studied concentration, the more important the doctrine became to us. Vistas to be explored, new details, fresh correlations, appeared on all sides. We felt that we had entered upon a work infinite in possibilities. The most important gain is in the immense economy of personal energy. This may be understood by the aid of the following statements:

1. The art of reading is mastered by using written and printed words from first to last as direct means of educative thinking.

2. Arithmetic is learned by the measurements actually needed in the study of subjects, as, for example, in manual training.

3. Skill in all modes of expression is developed by continual practical exercise in the immediate manifestation of thought. This applies to speech, oral reading, writing, manual training, and music; for—

4. The correlation of the modes of expression by which skill in one mode is obtained enhances the educative value of skill in all the other modes.

5. All the substantial subjects have an intrinsic correlation. History makes an imperative demand for geography. Geography is useless without history. Geology is the history of geography. Mineralogy is the study of the changes through which the material passes, and which result in geography. Biology is the study of life made possible by inorganic matter. Sociology is the study of the environment and home of man. The child begins the study of all these subjects before he enters school. Under the principle of correlation this study is continued. In mind-growth, all the energies of the pupil are engaged upon the direct study of the substantial subjects. In laboratories, in field excursions, in books, museums, and industries, everywhere, reading enters as a reinforcement of thought power, as a means of concentrating and expanding images. Arithmetic is an integral factor in all investigations, experiments, and study. The modes of expression are constantly used for their reactive influence upon consciousness, in relating and strengthening images. In moral growth, under the ideal of community life, self-expression is made ethical action.

All this was by no means accomplished in practice, but enough was done to show plainly what may be done in the future by better teaching.

LANGUAGE.

The pedagogics of language are by no means settled. As a faculty, we grappled with the various problems that language-teaching involves. It is needless to describe technical grammar, or the thin dilution of grammar called language-teaching. What language pedagogics was and is, and its results, everyone who has been a pupil in our schools well knows.

What the blood is to the body, language is to social life. Language, both oral and written, should be correct, strong, terse, clear, and graceful; it should be a great power in the one who uses it, and of great influence for good to those who hear or read it. How may speech and writing be developed in the best possible way?

The study of the substantial subjects, man and nature, demands at every step a fulness of both speech and writing. The recitation is a means by which teacher and pupil help each other to think earnestly, honestly, and persistently. Each pupil is called upon, from first to last, to use his best efforts in speech. His language must be his own, and must be spontaneous, that is, must spring immediately from educative thought.

How may language be developed along the line of least resistance? Is it by studying technical grammar, by writing and speaking countless correct but unrelated sentences, or by taking it warm from the child's soul and correcting it, shaping it, into what it should be? Is it not possible, under good teaching, to make language the warp of all exercises, both oral and written? If pupils repeat verbatim what they have learned; if there is no investigation, experiment, original research; if the controlling motive is not to help others, then the plan of developing language under the impulse of intrinsic thought must fall to the ground.

Our faculty tried the plan suggested. Both speech and written language were used as we used making, modeling, painting, and drawing. Whenever a suggestion, definition, rule, or any detail of technical grammar was needed to enhance the force and beauty of the expressed thought, it was given. Perhaps I am saying this too positively. It is exceedingly difficult to carry the rule just named into continual execution. I am sure, however, that the growth and development of language with our pupils was far better than under the technical grammar plan. We as teachers have been the victims of a very imperfect plan of language teaching, as a consequence of which our own knowledge of the laws of language is not equal to the new and higher demands.

CHILD-STUDY.

The teacher has to do with the child and his destiny. This destiny is civilization and all that this word implies. The march of civilization means better homes, better society, better institutions, and a higher spiritual life. The child is God's contribution to civilization.

Self-realization consists in improving the condition of mankind through personal effort. True education brings the child into direct contact with the problems of civilization, adapting them gradually to growing power. The teacher presents the conditions, creates the environment best adapted to self-realization. Knowledge of the child's nature, of the laws of his growth, of the necessities of his best living, of the actions that should be aroused and sustained, and of those that should be inhibited, is absolutely necessary to the creation of the pedagogical environment. The more the teacher knows of children in general, and of a child in particular, the better he can move his pupils in and toward an ideal. Froebel, Comenius, and Pestalozzi were students of children ; hence their epoch-making reforms. All real reforms of education in the past have sprung from child-study, and future educational progress will spring from the same source.

Within the past few years there has come to us, through laboratory investigations and experiments in physiological psychology, a more or less scientific child-study. Our faculty was ready to receive the help so freely and so abundantly offered ; for this help was in a line with our studies and discussions.

The practice school received quite a number, proportionately, of defectives and dull or backward children. In the absence of all unhealthful competition, or rivalry, the teachers were able, by means of manual and physical training, nature study, a large variety of work and play, and close individual attention, to make the school of great assistance to them. The teachers were glad to have these unfortunates in their class-rooms. It is well known that many good suggestions for the improvement of teaching have come from attempts to help defectives. Two deaf-mutes, now successful in professional life, graduated from our practice school.

Child-study brought us the truth which we had long suspected, that all really dull and backward children are so from some defect of body or brain; in a word, from some physical abnormality. Dull children, through the ages, have been scolded, flogged, nagged, driven to despair, by both parents and teachers. Dulness was attributed to inner depravity. This one revelation of child-study is enough to make it forever glorious. Instead of flogging, there comes a sweet, strong sympathy for the victims of inherited or acquired weakness. The school, we found, can do a great deal for most cases. The right work and play, physical exercise, beautiful music, with great patience, will do much. Our record with defectives, if written, would be very instructive.

The discovery of "nascent periods" is of untold value to teachers. The term, simply defined, means that the kind and direction of a child's activities, mental and physical, are determined, stage by stage, by the growth and development of the body and the brain. Creeping, walking, talking, are activities aroused and sustained by the different stages of physical development. The inferences are of exceeding value in teaching. The time for the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, etc., is determined by the physical and mental power which the child is able to bring to bear upon these activities. If the child is forced, the result is weakness. If the time is put off too long, there is a loss of power.

By understanding more clearly the interdependence of body and mind, we were led to the conclusion that physical training should have a very prominent place in school; that play is the very best of physical training; and more, that play is the very best preparation for study. Under the splendid leadership of Carl J. Kroh, it was proved that the child most skilful in physical exercise is strongest in all other school work.

Child-study brought us much that was rich with suggestion and prescription ; but, best of all, it made us more sympathetic, more patient and thoughtful, with all our pupils. We studied and watched them, and discriminated between real growth and delusive appearances of growth. A great flood of genuine humanity has come into the lives of our children, much of it through child-study and through the heart of its great advocate, Dr. G. Stanley Hall.

In 1883 the school was meagerly furnished with apparatus, books, collections, and other illustrative material. There were a few specimens of birds, a fair collection of minerals, and some apparatus for teaching physics. The Eberhartonian Society had collected about two hundred and fifty books. It is gratifying to report that the school now has an excellent all-around equipment: thirteen thousand carefully selected volumes in the library, card-catalogued and arranged for use ; the largest school collection of pictures in the world ; and a very large cyclopædia of newspaper clippings. The picture collection and the newspaper cyclopædia are the work of Mrs. Frances Stuart Parker. Many of the collections, mineralogical and anthropological, also were made by Mrs. Parker.

No other bit of equipment ever came into the school from which so much substantial benefit was derived as from the printing press. The printing began in a small way. There was great need of reading lessons which would directly enhance the value of thought acquired by investigations, experiments, field excursions, and other study. The lessons in the text-book did not enter the child's apperception. After the use for a while of a mimeograph, a hectograph, and other duplicating devices, at last a small printing press was purchased, with a font or two of type. Out of this has grown a very fairly equipped printing establishment. The printing of reading lessons was a great success, and the use of the type by no means ended with the new and fresh reading matter.

Under the knowledge ideal it is comparatively easy to make a course of study an orderly and logical arrangement of subjects, assumed to be a necessary form in an ordinary curriculum. Under the ideal described above, the making of a course of study is an evolution, a constant and careful revision, made possible and necessary by the insight of the teacher, and by a consensus of opinion on the part of the faculty. Details must be continually changed or eliminated, and new elements and factors introduced. The printing office has been of very great assistance in the evolution of courses of study.

In 1895 the Cook County Normal School published the first course of study on the basis of correlation and under the ideal of community life. This course of study was to us a basis, or, rather, a starting-point. Each department, once in three weeks, made outlines for the practice-school training class. These outlines contained subject-matter, with suggestions about illustrative material for adaptation, for methods, and devices, and a complete list of references for study. The critic teachers prepared outlines for one month's work, using the outlines of the special teachers as a general basis for class adaptation. These outlines contained criticisms, suggestions, directions, and references. This valuable printed matter kept the whole faculty informed as to the work of each of its members, throwing it open to criticism and discussion. It was also the best kind of periodical text-book for the training classes, giving them full directions for study, research, and investigation in preparing their practice work. Besides this, the syllabi for the faculty meetings were presented and given to the training classes, this tending to unite both students and teachers in one purpose—the study of education.

Two improvements of very great value were made last spring by the board of education. One was the establishment of a kindergarten department, by which Froebel's methods may better permeate the whole school. The second innovation eclipses all others. It is the introduction of a two-year course in place of the one-year course. This means that in the future the city and the county will receive from the school better teachers than they ever had before. One year is altogether too short a time in which to train young men and women in the art of all arts. The board of education, in making this change, took a great step in advance.

The plan of admitting students is by no means satisfactory. Ninety per cent.—the average high-school standing required for admission—means very little, and an examination much less. Neither method insures such students as should be trained for the high office of teacher. The principal and the faculty of a high school, after four years' observation of their students, ought to be able to decide who would make good teachers after two years of normal training.

In closing this report I wish to thank the many friends who have stood by the school in its struggles for progress. The list of strong friends and earnest defenders is a long and precious one, consisting of superintendents and members of school boards, both county and city, and of parents and citizens. I may be pardoned if I mention one whose name may be placed at the head of the list—Dr. Alfred H. Champlin, of Englewood. Above all, I desire to express my heartfelt appreciation of the earnest, self-sacrificing band of teachers who believed in the ideal of ideals, and to it devoted the best in their lives.

No other step in my life has given me greater pain than to leave the school I love, to which I have devoted myself heart and soul for sixteen years. Nothing but a profound belief that I can do greater good elsewhere induced me to break the bonds that bind me to the children I love, and to the graduates, who, I sincerely pray, will bravely fight the battles for God's little ones.

What has been gained? Very much. One step has been taken in changing from the old, mediæval ideals, the ideals of monarchs and aristocrats, to the ideal of self-government, citizenship, a higher community life. Not with the guns of Dewey and Sampson, not with armies and navies, will the inner, the decisive, battles of freedom be fought. Our city, our country, depends for its future on the teacher and the school, the school that insures the future by training the future citizen.